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## LABOR

### GOSPLAN OFFICIAL STRESSES MANPOWER AVAILABILITY

Moscow PRAVDA in Russian 18 Aug 80 p 2

[Article by USSR Gosplan member N. Rogovskiy: "The Plan and Labor Resources"]

[Text] Much has already been said about the fact that the demographic situation in our country is becoming complicated. Labor resources will be increasingly inadequate. This is caused first of all by the fact that the natural population increment among those of working age is gradually diminishing, while the departure of older people is rapidly increasing. True, that will not be the case in all regions. In Central Asia, Kazakhstan and Azerbaijan, the increment in the active population will remain high. But in the country's central regions, the worker personnel losses will exceed the increment in working-age population. That is why there will not, for a long time, be the kind of labor resources wide-openness there has been, the kind to which we are accustomed.

Unfortunately, many enterprise leaders perceive this problem as something detached and remote from their practical activity: what does that have to do with us, they say: we are expanding, putting new capacities into operation, increasing the production of output needed by the national economy, and there is no way we can do that without increasing the number of workers.

At first glance, everything seems to be correct, but just at first glance. The question is, where can one get additional manpower in, for example, the Nonchernozem Zone? The only way out is to entice it from a neighboring enterprise. And what will your neighbor do? The same thing, probably. But such "self-supplying" disorganizes production in that region or branch, which means that under present conditions, the regulation, distribution and redistribution of personnel is becoming one of our most pressing problems. How can we solve it?

We find the answer in the CPSU Central Committee and USSR Council of Ministers Decree "On Improving Planning and Strengthening the Influence of the Economic Mechanism on Improving Production Efficiency and Work Quality." It is oriented both in title and in substance towards carrying out the tasks set in the resolutions of the 25th CPSU Congress. It anticipates a comprehensive program of measures aimed at achieving high work quality and efficiency. A large place is given to further improving planning at all levels of management, from the USSR Gosplan, ministries and departments and the union republic Councils of Ministers to the associations and enterprises. In this regard, all planning work is aimed at achieving good end results, primarily by using the internal reserves of the national economy effectively.

Here, I should like to touch on just a few of the new aspects of planning aimed at further improving the effectiveness of labor resources use.

Over a period of many years, the approved indicators included no limits on the numbers of workers and employees. Enterprises were given the right to determine them. It was assumed that the leader would be interested in carrying out the assignment set in terms of increasing output using fewer people, economizing on the wage fund so as to increase labor payments to workers, foremen and engineers whose work merited additional material reward.

This hope was reinforced by the Shchekino experiment. Over a 10-year period, the "Azot" association increased production nearly three-fold, labor productivity was increased 3.4-fold, but the number of workers decreased by 1,500. This valuable experience was not widely disseminated, unfortunately.

But in reality, a situation evolved in which the plans approved by enterprise leaders anticipated simply fantastic increments in the number of workers and employees. They often exceed many times the calculated levels set by the USSR Gosplan. Characteristically, the actual number generally turned out to be considerably less than that planned by the enterprise.

Ill treatment of this most important plan indicator can in no way be considered an innocent game. It directly influences reducing production effectiveness, since it cools the ardor of some enterprise leaders, and what is especially dangerous, places them directly on the long road toward solving the problems facing them. After approving for himself a totally unrealistic plan in terms of number of workers, a plant director immediately starts talking about the manpower shortage.

At the same time, based on many years of experience, we can safely say that things are actually quite different, in general. In practice, one rarely encounters an enterprise which has no manpower reserves at all: some more, some less, but all have some reserves. Were it otherwise, were there no reserves, could enterprises work carelessly in the first 10-day period of the month, bestir themselves in the second, and, as they say, "deliver the program" only in the third?

#### Limiting the Number of Personnel

Oversights in production and labor organization, an inability to bring the necessary order to the use of available equipment and to modernize it, and an absence of well-thought out measures on the comprehensive mechanization and automation of production processes are often covered up by talk of a manpower shortage.

The situation has changed sharply since the appearance of the CPSU Central Committee and USSR Council of Ministers decree on improving the economic mechanism. The 1980 plan already sets a limit on the numbers of workers and employees for the ministries, and the latter have set limits for the associations and enterprises. And that will be the case in subsequent plans as well. At the same time, the five-year plans will include assignments on reducing manual labor.

But it would be a mistake to hope that these measures alone will exclude the possibility of above-plan numbers of workers. Here are the facts. During the first half of 1980, the manpower limits were exceeded in coal, food, meat and dairy industry. But whereas this was associated with additional coal mining assignments in the coal

industry, there were no grounds whatsoever for it in the food, meat and dairy industries: there, the plan was exceeded not through increased efficiency, but through above-plan numbers of workers.

It can be concluded from this that limiting alone does not guarantee that all enterprises will observe plan discipline. More serious economic sanctions must be applied against violators of discipline. For instance, funds to pay the wages of workers and employees recruited by enterprises above the limits approved for them might be taken from the material incentives fund. And bonuses for plan fulfillment might be cut in half for the leaders of enterprises permitting the limit to be exceeded.

#### How Important Is a Precise Balance?

I should like to touch on problems of improving the development of a labor resources balance. The USSR Gosplan has for a long time prepared annual, five-year and more long-range balances for the country as a whole and by union republic. The union republic gosplans have prepared them for krays and oblasts, and the RSFSR and Ukraine have prepared them even for economic regions. But the real importance of these documents, bluntly speaking, is not great, since they are submitted to superior agencies only as a reference work. It has now been established that the USSR Gosplan will henceforth submit to the government labor resources balances for the USSR and union republics and will anticipate in them steps to ensure that the national economy is provided with manpower. Thus, the labor resources balance has been elevated to the rank of an economic and social development plan indicator, which radically alters its role and importance not only in the state planning system, but also in managing the national economy.

The fact that the USSR State Committee for Labor and Social Questions is obligated to work out and carry out organizational and economic measures on distributing manpower, reducing turnover and securing personnel is also of important significance. Moreover, this department is entrusted with monitoring their effective use.

The role of local soviet organs for providing enterprises and organizations with personnel in drawing up the long-range and annual labor resources balances for the republics, krays and oblasts is also being increased. Jointly with them, the ministries and departments have been instructed to concern themselves with ensuring that subordinate associations and enterprises are provided with manpower. As they say, all the "i's" have been dotted: each has received his share of the work and the responsibility. It now remains to adjust the interaction of this complex mechanism.

#### Secret of Success

What causes losses of working time? Primarily, shortcomings in material-technical supply and production organization. The first is a consequence of plan imbalance. Enterprises often obtain less raw and other materials and assembly components than they require. Delivery schedules are not met, which in the end results in unevenness and consequently forces the enterprise to have a manpower reserve.

The second cause is a consequence of production organization mistakes at the enterprises themselves. For instance, disconnectedness in the work of individual shops and sectors leads to certain idleness. Much time is wasted due to the lack of needed tools and to poorly developed intraplant and shop transport.



Considerable losses of production time are also associated with direct violations of labor discipline: absenteeism, lateness, unsatisfactory organization of meal breaks, and so forth. Many institutions and enterprises serving workers are open the exact same hours the plants and construction projects are operating. People are forced to ask permission to leave their jobs to take care of personal needs and problems. This has been mentioned repeatedly, but that's all "water under the bridge." It is obviously time for the republic Councils of Ministers and for oblast and kray leaders to put services to the population into proper order.

Finally, a few words about the creation of specialized and multipurpose, integral-process brigades as an effective factor in conserving labor resources. It is known that the brigade form of labor organization will be the basic form in the 11th Five-Year Plan. Even now, it is being widely used at our enterprises, in heavy machine building in particular. More than 40 percent of the workers there are in brigades. At the Dnepropetrovsk Metallurgical Equipment Plant, the best multipurpose brigades have proven that changing over from individual to collective labor increases productivity by 12-15 percent. During three years of operation using the brigades, more than 150 people here have been freed for work in new shops.

Ahead lie new frontiers in the 11th Five-Year Plan, and success will depend foremost on how intelligently we make use of the country's labor resources, on how well we learn to skillfully maneuver the primary productive force of society.

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## LABOR

### ECONOMIC LAWS AFFECTING EMPLOYMENT STRUCTURE REVIEWED

Moscow EKONOMICHESKIYE NAUKI in Russian No 10, Oct 80 pp 57-63

[Article by T. Yugay: "The Economic Mechanism for Shaping the Structure of Employment"]

[Text] Structural processes in employment of the population are becoming increasingly important in shaping the system of national economic proportions. It is important to keep in mind that to some degree the structure of employment matches the structure of production. This is because during the process of shaping the proportions of employment there is modification of the laws and conditions that regulate the structure of the economy as a whole. Moreover, the laws and rules that govern employment itself are active. In this sense we may speak of the specific mechanism of shaping the proportions of employment.

Shaping the structure of employment is a process with several stages. In simplified form we may consider three levels: (1) public division of labor, which is the material foundation of the proportions of employment; (2) the distribution of employees by spheres of application of labor based on the action of economic laws;<sup>1</sup> (3) the structural policy of the state.

The role and place of the public division of labor in shaping the structure of employment are determined by the fact that the elaborate system of spheres of application of labor takes shape on this basis. Historically and logically the public division of labor has been expressed by a subdivision of production spheres (agriculture, industry, construction, trade, and the nonproduction sphere) and types of public labor corresponding to them that differ qualitatively from one another. The process of division of labor is linked to sectorial differentiation and production specialization in these distinct spheres and to the appearance of new types of labor. Thus, in 1913 there were just 70 sectors in the national economy, while in 1926 there were about 90 and at the present time the number of specialized sectors has passed 300. USSR industry has 500 distinct types of production. On the other hand, the number of occupations was 5,500 in 1920, 10,000 in 1926, 19,000 in 1939, 28,000 in 1959, and 30,000 in 1970.

The public division of labor shapes the material basis of the structure of employment, but the societal form of this process is determined by socioeconomic laws characteristic of the particular method of production.

"Everyone knows that different and quantitatively determined masses of aggregate public labor are needed for the corresponding different mass needs for mass products," K. Marx wrote in a letter to L. Kugel'man. "It is perfectly obvious that this necessity for distribution of public labor in definite proportions can in no way be eliminated by a definite form of public production; only the form of its manifestation can change."<sup>2</sup> It is this "form of manifestation," the method by which the work force is distributed to spheres of application of labor in conformity with societal needs, that is determined by the economic laws of socialism.

The shaping and development of the structure of employment is one of the major national economic processes which cannot be restricted to one phase of reproduction or sphere of the economy. It follows from this that no one economic law is "capable" of regulating the process of shaping the employment structure;<sup>3</sup> we are dealing here with the action of a whole set of laws which has developed into a definite system that we will call a small system. This system may not include the entire set of economic laws of socialism (the large system) and it may not copy their subordination.

In our view the so-called small system includes the following laws: (1) the laws that predetermine the general socioeconomic orientation of the functioning of public reproduction and national economic proportions (the basic economic law, the law of planned development); (2) laws that regulate the proportions of employment at the macrolevel (the law of time savings, the law of steady growth in the productivity of public labor, the law of value); (3) the laws of shaping employment in particular phases of the process of reproduction and particular spheres of the economy (the laws of socialist reproduction, the law of labor change, the law of distribution according to labor, the law of rising demands, and others).

The methodological foundation of an investigation of the mechanism of action of the economic laws that regulate the structure of employment is the principles advanced by Marx in analyzing the mechanism of proportionality in capitalist society.

As we know, K. Marx showed the ideal mechanism for achieving proportionality in capitalist society in two aspects: from the standpoint of the proportions of reproduction and the standpoint of sectorial proportions. Marx investigates the mechanism of sectorial proportionality in connection with the doctrine of average profit, whose essential point is that the quantitative parameters of production in each sector taken alone (volume of production, price, profit, and profit norm) are regulated by the law of value. At the intersectorial level the law of value is modified into the law of prices of production and the quantitative proportions are set by evening out sectorial profit norms into an average norm as the result of movements of capital from some sectors to other sectors.

For purposes of our investigation the mechanism of proportionality under capitalism itself is not important; we are interested in Marx's approach to analyzing it. First of all it is important to establish the hierarchy of economic laws in the process of establishing proportionality under capitalist conditions. It seems to us that the law of value is paramount in this process. K. Marx's statements on the role of the law of value in regulating

the proportions of public labor are widely known. This law is constantly bringing the dimensions of production of each particular type of commodity into line with the public need for it,<sup>4</sup> and therefore it distributes public labor in definite proportions. "This quantitative boundary to those parts of public work time which can wisely be expended for various special spheres of production is only the most highly developed expression of the law of value in general, even though necessary work time here acquires a different meaning. To satisfy public need a certain amount of work time is required."<sup>5</sup> Because the leading law in this mechanism is the law of value, the leading elements in the mechanism of proportionality are value categories: cost, profit norm, and average profit norm.

Another important aspect is determining the place of the basic economic law of capitalism in the mechanism of proportionality. All the economic categories relevant to this mechanism (profit, profit norm, and average profit norm) are converted forms of surplus profit and the endeavor of capitalists to receive an average profit norm is nothing but a modification of the pursuit of surplus profit. Thus, the basic economic law defines the objective, the motive, and the criterion for establishing proportionality.<sup>6</sup> K. Marx, pointing out that the basic law permeates all spheres of vital activity in capitalist society, nonetheless admits that it is entirely possible for some other law to play the leading role in certain particular processes.

In connection with the basic law there arises the concept of the goal of the functioning of the particular mechanism. This goal may be viewed in the broad sense of the word or the narrow sense. In the narrow sense under capitalism it is represented by the pursuit of profit. There is, however, a broader goal here too: the satisfaction of public need. "Public need, which is use value on a societal scale, is what determines the share of total public work time that goes to different particular spheres of production."<sup>7</sup>

Continuing, K. Marx demonstrated the method and form of achieving proportionality under capitalism, which is intrasectorial and intersectorial competition, spontaneous in nature.<sup>8</sup> As a result of this spontaneous (unplanned) form of achieving proportionality the laws that regulate it operate as the averages of constant fluctuations. K. Marx wrote: "There is no necessary relationship, but only a random relationship between the full amount of public labor spent for the particular public product, that is, that share of total labor which the society uses to produce this product, and therefore, which production of this product occupies in all production, on the one hand, and, on the other hand, the volume with which society attempts to satisfy the need using the particular product."<sup>9</sup>

Finally, K. Marx pointed out the most superficial layer of the mechanism of proportionality: the interests of the agents of production which motivate them in the process of establishing proportionality. It should be remarked here that attaining proportionality as such, just like satisfying public needs, is not one of the intentions of the agents. It is accomplished anyway as by-product of the process of establishing an average profit norm. While receiving an average profit norm is the main interest of the ruling class, the working class is indifferent to both the subjective and the objective results of this process. "Hired labor subordinate to capital is by its very nature



indifferent to the specific character of the work," K. Marx writes. "It must change according to the needs of capital and permit itself to be shifted from one sphere of production to another."<sup>10</sup>

K. Marx also formulated the conditions necessary to establish proportionality: mobility of capital and thorough mobility of the personal factor of production.<sup>11</sup>

The Marxist methodology for investigating the mechanism of establishing proportionality under capitalism provides the key to understanding the mechanism of shaping the structure of employment under conditions of developed socialism. In the first place, it makes it possible to determine the role of each law of the small system in shaping employment, and it also helps identify the component parts of this mechanism.

"The role of the basic economic law of socialism in shaping the proportions of employment involves primarily the fact that it determines the socioeconomic goal of change in the proportions of public labor and also the criterion of its efficiency." The pivot on which the proportions of a mature socialist economy turn, writes G. M. Sorokin, "is the goal of socialist production — maximum satisfaction of societal needs and creating proper conditions for comprehensive development of the human being and building the material-technical base of communism."<sup>12</sup> It is important here that the purpose of establishing proportionality — balance between the structure of production and public need — is stated openly and clearly from the beginning and there is no need to resort to roundabout ways to achieve it. Furthermore, the basic economic law defines the general directions of change in the proportions of employment. By regulating the principal socioeconomic proportion, between savings and consumption, the economic law shows the direction of change in the ratios between subdivision I and II of public production, material production and the nonproduction sphere, and industry and agriculture, and therefore also the proportions of distribution of labor among them.

The leading law in the mechanism of shaping the structure of employment is the law of time savings. K. Marx's statements on the impact of the law of time savings on the process of shaping the proportions of labor are widely known. Thus, K. Marx wrote: "Time savings, like planned distribution of work time by different sectors of production, remains the first economic law when based on collective production. It even becomes a law of a much higher degree."<sup>13</sup> The leading role of the law of time savings is linked to the fact that the distribution of the aggregate labor of society by spheres and sectors of production is accomplished in the form of work time. "In reality, no form of society can prevent the work time at the disposal of society from regulating production in some way or other."<sup>14</sup>

In the process of distributing employees by spheres of application of labor work time takes the form of socially necessary work time or, to be more exact, that part of it which is contained in live labor. Here we must distinguish two levels: (1) within the sector the volume of aggregate inputs of live labor or the need for work force forms on the basis of intrasectorial inputs of socially necessary work time; (2) on the intersectorial level the ratios among number of persons employed take shape with due regard for the social need for the particular types of output (socially necessary inputs at the macrolevel).



By its economic nature socially necessary work time is constantly striving for the minimum level; this is the very essence of the law of time savings. On the other hand, a reduction in work time is always the result of growth in labor productivity. This is the point of intersection of two organically related laws: the law of time savings and the law of steady growth in labor productivity. The different functional parts of work time (labor embodied in means of production and live labor) change unequally and frequently change in different directions. Under the capital-intensive form of intensive reproduction characteristic of the current phase of USSR development, the action of the law of time savings takes shape on the basis of two conflicting tendencies: a growing savings in live labor and an increase in the share and absolute amount of embodied labor. With the transition to all-encompassing intensification of public production in the future the opportunities for saving work time in both forms will increase.

A savings of live labor in some sectors creates the prerequisites for its redistribution to other sectors. In this sense the law of time savings is one of the major causes of changes in the proportions of public labor. The forms in which time savings manifest themselves differ. They may be expressed in a decrease in employment in particular sectors or, by contrast, an increase in the share of sectors with a high level of productivity, a drop in the number of workers employed in productive labor, and so on.

One of the most general expressions of time savings is the ratio between material production and the nonproduction sphere. In 1913 material production employed 95 percent of all employed persons and the nonproduction sphere had just five percent; in 1978 employment in the nonproduction sphere had risen to 25.6 percent (see table below).

Distribution of Employed Population in the National Economy,  
by Sectors\*

	1913	1940	1965	1970	1975	1978
Total Employment in National Economy	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
In the Sectors of Material Production	95.0	88.3	79.8	77.1	75.2	74.4
Industry	9.0**	22.0	29.3	30.1	29.5	29.8
Agriculture	75.0	47.4	27.3	22.7	20.4	19.4
Transportation and Communications	2.0	6.8	8.8	8.9	9.3	9.5
Construction	9.0**	3.4	7.8	8.8	9.2	9.1
Trade, public catering, material-technical supply and marketing, procurement	9.0	5.6	6.4	7.2	7.7	7.8
Nonproduction Sectors	5.0	11.7	20.2	22.9	24.8	25.6

\* Calculated from data given in "Narodnoye Khozyaystvo v 1978 g." [The National Economy in 1978], Moscow, 1979, p 364.

\*\* For 1913 industry and construction are given with one figure.

The objective basis of the increase in employment in the nonproduction sphere is the rise of labor productivity in the sectors of material production. Between 1913 and 1978 the productivity of public labor rose 51 times, including 27.5 times in industry, 6.5 times in agriculture, and 14.0 times in rail transportation.<sup>15</sup> There is a direct relationship between savings resulting from a rise in labor productivity and the possibility of redistributing workers to the nonproduction sphere. On the other hand, the very development of the nonproduction sphere, especially such sectors of it as science, education, public health, and domestic services, introduces new aspects in the mechanism of action of the law of time savings. Thus, the rise in education and qualifications among employees means expanded reproduction of the work force; in other words, it is equivalent to an increase in the number of workers. According to calculations by V. Komarov, the coefficient of labor reduction was 1.24 in 1960, 1.38 in 1970, and 1.43 in 1975. Therefore, because of the rise in education and qualifications a correction factor should be applied to the absolute number of persons employed in the production sphere: 24 percent for 1960, 38 percent for 1970, and 43 percent for 1975.<sup>16</sup>

Another expression of time savings on the scale of the national economy is the reduction of employment in agriculture. Between 1940 and 1979 the number of persons employed in agriculture dropped by 5.0 million and its share of all employment declined from 47.4 to 18.4 percent; in these same years the rise in labor productivity was 400 percent.<sup>17</sup> The absolute decrease in number of workers in agriculture is a specific form of manifestation of the law of steady growth in the productivity of public labor. The possibilities for expanding the "field of production" in agriculture are limited, so labor savings there involves an absolute decrease in the number of employed persons.

A special indicator of time savings is increase in employment in industry and, within industry, in the progressive sectors (machine building, electric power, and the chemical industry) and in the sectors that perform final processing of output. This savings is achieved through the higher level of labor productivity in these sectors, which means that the same amount of live labor will produce more public products than in other sectors.

Next, following the Marxist methodology, we must consider the form and method of achieving proportional distribution of public labor. Under socialism, planning is the universal form of economic functioning, and therefore, the shaping of the proportions of employment is done by plan. The method of achieving proportionality follows from this: state management (planning, stimulation, and administrative control).

The shaping and development of the structure of employment is an objective process which takes place under the influence of the laws of development of productive forces and production relationships. These laws, however, appear on the surface of the phenomena as other economic forms which, as L. I. Abalkin points out, "may be planned, modified, and calculated by people. They are to some extent 'handmade.'"<sup>18</sup> Therefore, society represented by the socialist state is able to affect the economic laws that regulate the structure of employment through their manifestations.

Socialist society distributes capital investment by economic sectors and establishes growth rates of labor productivity, the wages fund, and average

and minimum wages according to plan. The use of labor resources is planned by plans for labor and wages and balances of labor resources. In addition, the movement of the work force is regulated by organizational forms such as establishing a plan for admission to schools, assignment of young specialists, organized recruitment, public appeals, development of a vocational guidance system, and so on.

As the result of the multiple levels involved in shaping the structure of employment and certain subjective factors, unfavorable trends and contradictions sometimes occur. For example, one of the indicators of time savings is, as mentioned above, a reduction in employment in agriculture. During the years of Soviet power employment in this sector has declined sharply. But in the last 15-20 years the movement of labor away from agriculture has decreased significantly (in 1970-1975 the number of agricultural employees went down only 200,000). The main reason is the continuing low level of mechanization of agricultural labor; three-fourths of the persons employed in this sector work manually.<sup>19</sup> The possibilities of eliminating this disproportion (we are, of course, speaking on the national economic scale; in particular regions the problem is just the opposite, to prevent the departure of able-bodied population from agriculture) are linked to completing primary mechanization and, primarily, with a rise in the level of comprehensive mechanization (eliminating disproportions between deliveries of tractors and working machines, the use of minitractors in gardens and orchards). As for the future of agricultural labor, it involves the introduction of production automation.

Another example is the contradiction between the growth rates of productivity and the capital-labor ratio. Both these factors are basic elements of the mechanism of savings of live labor, but the effect of the capital-labor ratio and labor productivity in a sectorial breakdown differs. Moreover, in a quantitative sense these two factors limit one another. In recent years industry has shown a negative trend in the ratio between the capital-labor ratio and labor productivity.

Thus, the growth rate of the capital-labor ratio in each particular stage of national economic development has a certain maximum level which, in turn, limits the rate of growth of labor productivity. This contradiction is becoming worse because the current phase of intensification of production involves completion of the primary mechanization of labor and a transition to fully mechanized and automated production. In the future the growth rate of labor productivity must exceed the growth rate of the capital-labor ratio; the savings of live labor should also involve a growing savings of embodied labor.

At the November 1979 Plenum of the CPSU Central Committee Comrade L. I. Brezhnev devoted considerable attention to questions of overcoming disproportions. The most significant problems are improving the work of transportation, especially rail transportation; refining the fuel-energy balance; raising the quality of metal and preventing losses of metal; reducing the time required for capital construction; improving the structure of the consumer complex and raising the quality and assortment of industrial and food goods. Solving these problems will require an appropriate reorganization of the sectorial structure.

#### FOOTNOTES

1. It should be observed that the concepts of "division of labor" and "distribution of labor" are not identical. As L. D. Logvinov correctly observes, "Distribution of labor shows the quantitative characteristic of the division of labor, while the latter determines the qualitative characteristic of the distribution of labor. These two concepts describe the same process, but from different points of view; taken together they give it a qualitative and quantitative definition." L. D. Logvinov, "Vseobshchaya Zanyatost' i Razdeleniye Truda pri Sotsializme" [Universal Employment and the Division of Labor under Socialism], Moscow, 1972, p 43).
2. Marx, K., and Engels, F., "Soch." [Works], 2nd ed., Vol 32, pp 460-461.
3. In this connection it is difficult to agree with those authors who express views on the existence of a general economic law of distribution of gross public product by sectors (see for example, Ya. A. Kronrad, "Zakony Politicheskoy Ekonomii Sotsializma" [The Laws of the Political Economy of Socialism], Moscow, 1966, p 408 and V. I. Naumova, "Sistema Ekonomicheskikh Zakonov Sotsializma i Mekhanizm Yeye Deystviya" [The System of Economic Laws of Socialism and the Mechanism of Its Action], Leningrad, 1973, pp 71-78). In their opinion this law regulates not only the qualitative side of the shaping of sectorial proportions but also their quantitative characteristics. However, the authors of whom we are speaking do not show how this law performs its functions. It is true that V. I. Naumova remarks that "the law of distribution of labor does not regulate proportions on its own, but with the help of other general laws" and that "these general laws operate and are manifested through the law of distribution of labor" (Naumova, op. cit., p 74). In essence, V. I. Naumova dissolves this economic law in a system of laws. This by itself is evidence that a definite system of laws participates in shaping the structure of aggregate social labor.
4. It should be considered that public need (demand) in the system of categories of the capitalist method of production appears as solvent demand.
5. Marx and Engels, op. cit., Vol 25, part II, p 186.
6. "Capitalist production itself is completely indifferent to the particular use value and to the specific features of the particular commodity that it produces in general. In each sphere of production its only concern is to produce surplus value and take for itself a certain amount of unpaid-for labor in the product of labor" (Marx and Engels, op. cit., vol 25, part I, - 214).
7. Marx and Engels, op. cit., Vol 25, part II, p 186.
8. Marx and Engels, op. cit., Vol 25, part I, pp 189, 211.
9. Ibid., pp 204-205.
10. Ibid., p 214.



11. Ibid., pp 214-215.
12. Sorokin, G. M., "Problemy Vospriizvodstva i Planirovaniya Sotsialisticheskoy Ekonomiki" [Problems of Reproduction and Planning the Socialist Economy], Moscow, 1976, p 354.
13. Marks and Engels, op. cit., Vol 46, part I, p 117.
14. Marks and Engels, op. cit., Vol 32, p 9.
15. See "Narodnoye Khozyaystvo SSSR v 1978 g." [The USSR National Economy in 1978], Moscow, p 31.
16. See V. Komarov, "The Economic Efficiency of Education" VOPROSY EKONOMIKI 1977, No 9, p 62.
17. See "Narodnoye Khozyaystvo SSSR v 1979 g." [The USSR National Economy in 1979], Moscow, 1980, pp 44, 312, 387.
18. Abalkin, L. I., "Khozyaystvennyi Mekhanizm Razvitoego Sotsialisticheskogo Obshchestva" [The Economic Mechanism of Developed Socialist Society], Moscow, 1973, p 28.
19. Other causes are related to deformation of the age-sex structure of the rural population and the low population mobility found in the republics of Transcaucasia and Central Asia.

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## LABOR

### LABOR DEFICIT TERMED SIMPLE INEFFICIENCY

Moscow LITERATURNAYA GAZETA in Russian 24 Sep 80 p 10

[Article by Candidate of Economic Sciences V. Volodarskiy: "Shortage of Common Sense?"]

[Text] I don't know how my colleagues, other working economists, will take such honesty (I may be giving away some sort of trade secret), but I'll openly state that some people have made the so-called personnel deficit a breastwork which safely and often protects us from censure for poor work. It is enough for an enterprise leader to say these magic words, and he instantaneously becomes a martyr in the eyes of his superiors, and he is begged, implored, to somehow find a way out of the mess, to try a little harder.... Sometimes, no attempt is made to get to the essence of the concrete situation, to look with pencil in hand at whether the situation is really all that hopeless. And were they to look at it they would see, to their considerable surprise, that quite often the personnel deficit reduces to the following: according to the plan, there must be 100 workers, but there are actually 99, and they are doing work which under normal conditions could easily be handled by...60 people. So is this a deficit or an obvious surplus?

I am convinced that there is no actual shortage in many regions of the country. But there is an artificial shortage, one created on paper. The personnel deficit is the difference between planned and actual numbers of workers, but we specialists know that the planned number is an elastic value, one which can be stretched.

I have worked as chief economist at a machine-building enterprise for more than 20 years and more than once tried to set the planned number on a trustworthy basis. The results just confused things. At the "Porshen" plant in Alma-Ata, the planned number of workers should have been reduced by 6.4 percent, and at the Alma-Ata Heavy Machine-Building Plant — by 7.3 percent. Not a deficit, but a sizeable surplus! Incidentally, there, too, working time losses due to unacceptable causes exceed the values indicated. Do the enterprise directors know about this? They do. But no one wants to be the "black sheep." Moreover, it is easier to work given such a "deficit": much is forgiven, much is written off to the shortage of people.

The personnel turnover problem is inseparably linked to the so-called deficit. Let me say straight away that it can be economically justified or unjustified. Useful turnover is a change of jobs in conformity with one's specialty and skills, moving to work in the North, and so on.

The reference here is to unjustified turnover. It is precisely this that causes great harm, increases the artificial personnel deficit and enables some workers to grab a little more from society and give it a little less.

We are struggling against turnover, but sometimes in strange ways. For example, labor resources recording and distribution departments and bureaus have been created in a majority of the cities. Enterprises conclude agreements with them to provide them with personnel and pay money for this. But then the following happens. Someone comes to the enterprise personnel department. He is familiarized with the job and the workplace. He agrees to work there. Then he is asked to "go to the job placement bureau and say you have reached an agreement with us and bring us an official directive." He leaves and returns two or three days later (the bureau has lines and is open only certain hours); he is registered at the enterprise and begins work. The job placement bureau must be paid for each new worker who has officially passed through it. Paid for what? For the fact that the worker has lost two or three days doing it?

Many steps have been taken to combat turnover, and more and more will be taken. Have all these steps really been ineffective? Perhaps we have things backwards and are trying to treat the symptoms, rather than the disease.

It is clear to everyone that the possibility of turnover arises quickly when more is required in a given locality than actually is there. Then we can only entice workers from one enterprise to another by promising them certain benefits. Benefits generally signify a higher wage for easier work. And that is precisely the fly that spoils the whole jar of ointment! Not many leave, and an insignificantly small number change jobs, but the qualitative effect of these dashes is completely disproportionate to the numbers involved. Now even backward workers know that "if they want," they can go to a neighboring enterprise and at least it will be no worse there.

I am convinced that today's personnel "deficit" is basically a manifestation of shortcomings in wages.

Here is but one example. The second shift at several Alma-Ata plants generally leaves work 2-3 hours early. The explanation? City transport is poor late in the evening and it is hard to get home. So the transport workers are at fault? We have been wrangling about this for a long time, trying to rouse city organizations and making demands on passenger transport workers. And they have improved their work, but the result has been practically zero. Nothing has changed. We continue to explain and study the situation concretely and as a family. And it is revealed that it's not a transport problem at all: even those who live across the road from the plant are quitting early....

The uninitiated would say, of course, that those leaving work early would take a substantial loss in wages. The fact of the matter is, they don't.

In his report at the 25th CPSU Congress, L. I. Brezhnev said that wages must be earned. That is the way to solve the problem. It is precisely this which can and must lead to stabilization of the personnel situation, to a sharp rise in labor productivity. What capital investments are needed to keep people from quitting early? None whatsoever.

Wage regulations are frequently violated, and the deviations run basically in one direction, towards overpayment. In this regard, bonuses are sometimes dreamed up for achieving certain indicators (one might ask, what are wages for?). To do this, a technician is called a senior engineer, a supply agent -- an engineer, and so on. Small enterprises are frequently called pilot or experimental enterprises, but the whole point of such a designation is to have their workers paid more.

I am convinced that when proper order is brought to wages, not at individual enterprises but everywhere and simultaneously, a great deal will fall into place and be in line with the norms. The disease can be cured, but it should be remembered that we treat the disease, not its symptoms.

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## LABOR

### RSFSR PEDAGOGICAL INSTITUTE GRADUATES FAIL TO REPORT FOR ASSIGNMENTS

Moscow SOVETSKAYA ROSSIYA in Russian 30 Oct 80 p 2

[Article by P. Guskov, Ye. Nazarov and T. D'yakonova of Kaluga, Stavropol'skiy Kray and Moscow, respectively: "Why Didn't the Teacher Come"]

[Text] At the very end of September our newspaper published an article from a correspondent entitled "A Teacher ... On Time?" This article gave facts and figures on how many graduates from which pedagogical VUZ's in the RSFSR were not reporting for work where they had been assigned in the schools of Tyumenskaya Oblast. The editors expressed confidence that these facts would motivate a serious analysis of the character building of party and Komsomol organizations in pedagogical VUZ's and of rector's offices. Now we have the first reports from the scene--the first answers to the questions: What were the motives of certain young teachers in commencing their careers with violations of civic ethics? With a refusal to work where the state most needed them? In precisely those schools where they had been assigned?

Two envelopes with return addresses in Tyumenskaya Oblast recently arrived in the Personnel Division of the Kaluga State Pedagogical Institute imeni K. E. Tsioolkovskiy--confirmation that L. Kachalina and N. Samokhina-Prokhorova, graduates of the institute, had arrived at the place where they were to work. Only two envelopes. But there should have been 10 such communications from Tyumen'. Where were the other eight from Kaluga who were supposed to go to Tyumen'?

"Young people have a longing to go to far off places," D. M. Grishin, pro-rector of the institute for academic affairs, assured us. O. V. Lyfenko, chief of the personnel division, backed him up by telling how one girl among the current graduates had begged insistently to go to the Baltic Republics, but had not been allowed. Instead she had had to travel to Moscow for permission.

It also turned out that this was not an isolated case. Had we pointlessly cast aspersions on young graduates? But these same examples also put us on our guard. What was the explanation for the fact that the plan of the RSFSR Ministry of Education called for 41 graduates to remain in Kaluzhskaya Oblast, while in actuality 63 remained. It called for 25 persons to be independently assigned and placed, while the actual number was 77, nor is that the final figure. Where do the people come from who account for this replenishment of teachers in Kaluga? They are, of course, the graduates people were waiting for in Tyumen', in the Baltic Republics and in other regions of the country.

"In the oblast's schools there is now a shortage of 47 teachers of various disciplines," explained Yu. Yu. Pestrikov, deputy head of the Kaluzhskaya Oblast Public Education Division. "We called upon the RSFSR Ministry of Education to leave in the oblast the entire graduating class of our pedagogical institute. They did not agree with us."

But does Kaluga really need the Kaluga graduates? The applications book in the city public education division has for 3 years had several dozen names next to which there is the entry "No vacancy."

Nevertheless, none of the members of the state commission for assignments even asked himself how many of the graduates were assigned outside the oblast. And who would put that question? The head of the oblast public education division, the head of the school division of the oblast Komsomol committee, the chairman of the oblast trade union committee and other members of the commission thought first about "their own" local interests....

The party committee and rector's office of the Stavropol' Pedagogical Institute acknowledged that the newspaper's criticism was just. The article from our correspondent entitled "A Teacher ... On Time?" was discussed in all the institute's schools, in groups and in open party meetings. Appropriate letters were sent to the organizations where, it was discovered, they had taken jobs on their own. One of the VUZ graduates, for example, was unlawfully on the staff of the Stavropol' Chemical Reagent and Lumino-phor Plant.

As we were told by B. V. Smirnov, the institute's rector, they still do not know where four graduates are now located who did not report for work in Tyumenskaya Oblast: two were late, but had already departed, and two had obtained permission from the ministry not to go. Thus in all the law on assignments was violated not by eight, but only by four.

An official response bearing three signatures—of the rector, the secretary of the party committee and the secretary of the Komsomol committee—was sent to the editors by the Moskovskaya Oblast Pedagogical Institute imeni N. K. Krupskaya. The response was a confirmation: yes, instead of 20 graduates, 12 were sent to Tyumenskaya Oblast. Eight did not go for family reasons. Consequently, the original plan was adjusted both by the state

commission for assignments and the RSFSR Ministry of Education. It turned out to have been adjusted even in the Moscow Pedagogical Institute imeni Lenin....

That is what was revealed by the facts and figures given in the article. But the point today is not so much their revision as their content. We will try to analyze this.

First about why the ministry adjusts its own assignments plans. There is a very important answer for this in both the ministry and in the institutes: life is life. In this situation it means that the majority of the students in the pedagogical institutes are women. They get married, they settle down with families.... And after they graduate from the institute, they remain in the place where their husband lives. What sort of legal charges will you file? Every one of our institutions and laws favors the family, not the reverse!

But it is necessary after all to furnish all the schools with skilled pedagogical personnel--the law on universal secondary education must be conscientiously carried out. Which means that any adjustment of plans for work assignment of young people should take this above all as its point of departure. What would be wrong if in solving this problem we take as our point of departure, say, even that long-established truth of the full equality of men and women in our country? Full economic independence of one another? And carefully weigh just how necessary it is for the young woman teacher to remain in the town where her husband works instead of his going where she works.

This is one aspect of the problem, but there is also another. At this point it seems worthwhile to listen carefully to the opinion of the rector of the Stavropol' Pedagogical Institute.

"I have already had occasion to participate in the proceedings of several prestigious conferences not only at the republic level, but also the national level. And at every one there has been discussion about the need to finally achieve a situation in which VUZ graduates (not, incidentally, just graduates of pedagogical institutes) work where they are assigned. Very often I have heard the now well-known proposal: deliver the diploma certifying completion of higher education to the graduate at the place where he has been assigned to work at the end of 3 years or at least after 1 year of service..

There would not seem to be any basis for such serious discussion--what does it matter about a few unconscientious graduates?... But we will recall the costs familiar to everyone--what every such case of "unconscientiousness" costs the state. It costs society about 1,000 rubles for a school child to complete the 10 grades of secondary school. An equal amount is spent per student for every year he attends a VUZ....

People say that there is a reliable means of ensuring teachers to even the remote schools--send those young people to the VUZ's for study, and then they will go back to work in their home towns. But even the "geographic" approach does not solve the problems. In the Stavropol' institute, for example, benefits in enrollment are established for those who come from the eastern rayons of Stavropol'skaya Oblast: the conditions of employment there are considerably more problematical, and the need for teachers more acute. The benefits are substantial: a passing grade means far less. And what has happened? Only isolated individuals among the students receiving these benefits go back.

There is practically no possibility of obtaining compliance of the graduates who have refused to go where they were assigned. There is, to be sure, a 16-year-old decree which states that in exceptional cases it is possible to take diplomas away from those specialists who do not discharge their duties to the state. But this idea has not been implemented fully: a legal procedure has not been indicated for examining such situations--it has not been stated who is supposed to resolve this issue.

The problem of assignments is still an acute one. It needs more than administrative measures. And here we cannot but speak about how the young teachers are welcomed in some places. It is not yet uncommon for people on farms to provide an agronomist or zootechnician first with housing and to help him furnish himself livestock and poultry. His life gets arranged both more quickly and more easily. This attitude is by no means always or everywhere taken toward the teacher. These same cases in Tyumenskaya Oblast confirm this.

The effort to build character in the VUZ needs to be intensified. No one has any doubt about this. But there is also a need to enhance the prestige of the teaching profession--so that the very thought of rejecting it does not enter one's mind. Mikhail Niyazovich Akmalov, prorector of the Pyatigorsk Pedagogical Institute of Foreign Languages, acknowledging that the newspaper article was correct, proposes:

"We should think of measures that would attract VUZ graduates to work under conditions that are more difficult. Is it fair for the salary of a teacher in, say, Pyatigorsk to be the same as in a remote rural rayon in the mountains which lacks many conveniences. The credit given for length of service is also equal. But in the Tyumen' region the northern supplement is the same for both cities and rural areas.

The teacher has not come to work.... No, the reasons behind such an act are not all the same by any means. Aside from those given above, there is also the absence at times of proper monitoring by the RSFSR Ministry of Education of fulfillment of its own plans for work assignment of young teachers, as indicated by the "Kaluga version." And the tardy adjustment of those plans: information from the ministry reaches the oblast public education division at the peak of the summer season at best, when it is



already difficult to take steps to fully staff schools with the necessary personnel.

But the most important thing is that the problems of work assignments for graduates (or more precisely, women graduates!) of pedagogical VUZ's are not new at all. They face the RSFSR Ministry of Education and local party and soviet authorities every year. Every time the problems are the same in essence: in any case, there is no basis at present to suppose that in the near future young men will long to study in pedagogical VUZ's. This means that in coming years women teachers who have just graduated will "settle down" according to where their husbands work.

But there must, of course, be a barrier set up so that there are no gaping "holes" in school class schedules because there is no one to teach some particular subject. It is up to the RSFSR Ministry of Education and local soviet and party authorities to do this first of all. It is their direct state concern and obligation to organize straightforward monitoring of the assignment of young specialists and to see that they are provided good housing, especially in rural rayons and particularly in those which are remote.

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## LABOR

### UTILIZATION OF FEMALE LABOR

#### In-Plant Efforts Promote Woman Worker Training

Moscow EKONOMICHESKAYA GAZETA in Russian No 42, Oct 80 p 17

[Article by E. Vasil'yeva, deputy chairman of the Commission of the AUCCTU Presidium for Work Among Women, and S. Turchaninova, senior staff scientist of the Higher School of the Trade Union Movement: "Concern About the Woman Worker"]

[Text] One of the important problems in increasing the efficiency of utilization of labor resources is to take into account the specific nature of female labor in organizing worker training and retraining. "The party considers it its duty," L. I. Brezhnev said in the Report Address to the 25th CPSU Congress, "to show constant concern for women, for improving their position as participants in the work process, as mothers bringing up children and as housewives."

At present the principal form of worker training is still training right in the workplace. The share of women workers trained in the workplace in the total number of workers who have learned new occupations and specialties is higher than that of men workers, and for many specialties it amounts to 80-95 percent. A favorable aspect of workplace training such as the speed with which workers are trained (between 1 and 6 months and less often up to 1 year) has great importance to middle-aged and elderly women returning to the workplace or changing their occupation.

At the same time the way in which workplace training is organized, especially training sessions of courses in production techniques, special-purpose courses and instruction in second occupations to be combined with the worker's principal occupation, and in schools for progressive work procedures does not always take into account the interests of the woman worker.

Surveys which the AUCCTU has conducted in recent years of the composition of the work force of industrial enterprises with respect to occupations and skills have shown that the system of workplace training and improvement of qualifications that was in effect until last year, which provided for

training sessions to be held exclusively after working hours, was less accessible to a majority of working women with families. The preoccupation with running the household and bringing up children sharply reduces the free time of working women which they can devote to training and improvement of their skills. Only at certain enterprises were women workers trained in courses and schools for improvement of qualifications during working hours.

The decree adopted in June 1979 by the CPSU Central Committee and the USSR Council of Ministers, entitled "On Measures To Further Improve Workplace Training and Improvement of Qualifications of Workers," requires that ministries and departments assign their subordinate production associations and enterprises annual targets for improvement of the qualifications of women workers. Planning the number of workers who will improve their qualifications, along with specification of the number of women and the specific occupations in which they will be trained, makes it possible to manage in a planned way the process of improvement of qualifications and improvement of the composition of the female labor force.

As noted in the decree, enterprise directors must join public organizations in working out the necessary measures to create conditions for ongoing improvement of the vocational skills of women workers.

At advanced enterprises the share of women improving their qualifications has been brought up to their proportion in the total work force and, in particular, in the occupations representing highly skilled work.

Good conditions for women improving their qualifications have been created at the Krasnyy Oktyabr' and petroleum machinebuilding plants in Volgograd. They are relieved from working on the evening shift during the period of training. Training has been organized in two shifts for women workers with families at the Volgograd Steel Wire and Cable Plant imeni 50-letiya SSSR, and children's institutions are open around-the-clock. In the Tallinn production association Norma 15 women workers with children under age 8 improved their qualifications between last September and this May by doing their training in working hours for which they were paid.

The management and trade union organizations of the imeni Klimentii and Sangar garment production associations, the Tiraspol' Garment Factory imeni 50-letiya VLKSM, the Volgograd Technical Carbon Plant, the Moscow Second Timepiece Plant, the Lyubertsy Carpet Combine and other enterprises have acquired constructive experience in the training of women.

But spot checks have shown that measures that help in attracting women to vocational training are not being planned everywhere.

The various aspects of creating conditions favorable for the vocational growth of women workers, for improvement of their qualifications, and for improvement of their working conditions and everyday life and rest must

unfailingly be included in the plans for social development of work collectives and must be a matter for constant concern of the management and public organizations.

### Ways of Employing Pensioners Explored

Riga SOVETSKAYA LATVIYA in Russian 9 Oct 80 p 2

[Article by V. Daksha, deputy social security minister of Latvian SSR: "Working Pensioners"]

[Text] The working pensioner. You will agree that we have already been accustomed to this combination of words. Moreover, we take it as self-evident. Today an ever larger number of people who have reached pensionable age are continuing to work. Some at the same enterprises where they worked before retirement, while others select an easier job as their health allows.

Today there are nearly 300,000 persons in the republic who are receiving a state old-age pension. More than 88,000 of them are working in industry and agriculture. The number of working pensioners has increased 13,000 in just the first 4 years of the current 5-year plan.

But we will try to see what is hidden behind what at first seems dry figures. How to explain, for example, the desire of the pensioners themselves to return to work or never to leave it. Are they short of money? Are relations bad in the family? Are their children ungrateful? Are they simply bored sitting and doing nothing?

Sociologists have long been interested in these questions. Here is what they have discovered: the principal motivations for continuing to work after reaching pensionable age are above all the desire to benefit society by their work, to pass on their abundant work experience to young people, and to feel themselves necessary to the work collective. Only thereafter is mention made of purely material reasons or other reasons which are still less important.

As we see, the pensioner is interested in working, provided, of course, it does not hurt his health. At this point there is a quite reasonable question to ask: What benefit can he contribute to the state? After all, many occupations are beyond the strength of people of pensionable age, and they are sick more often than young people. It turns out that the pensioner, even assuming that he has a lighter work load, does benefit the state, and the benefit is a substantial one. It is no accident, then, that the party and government are paying attention to the job placement of retired persons. There is confirmation of this in the decree of the CPSU Central Committee and USSR Council of Ministers entitled "On Measures Embodying Material Incentives for Pensioners To Work in the National Economy." This decree extended the list of worker categories entitled to obtain old-age



pensions simultaneously with wages and established benefits for persons working a shorter workday. The decree requires the directors of enterprises and organizations to hire more pensioners to work a shorter workday in the production sphere and in serving the public.

Social security agencies of the republic are taking effective steps to implement the basic principles of that decree. Even today we can say that practically all pensioners who want to work have been placed in jobs in the republic. Credit for this is undoubtedly owing to all the parties interested in this matter--the Latvian State Committee for Labor, the republic's social security agencies, and the management of enterprises and organizations.

But the growing need for workers cannot always be met with persons of pensionable age. They are not up to the work of stevedores, electricians, machine tool operators and certain other occupations. Social security agencies therefore regard it as their most important task to discover those jobs in enterprises and organizations in which pensioners can work effectively. Jointly with enterprises and job placement bureaus city and rayon social security divisions compile monthly lists of occupations recommended for persons of pensionable age, and ultimately this makes it possible to be speedy and responsive in suggesting to a retired person a job that would interest him.

This is the approach taken to solving this important problem in Daugavpils and Līvēpaya and in the Rīžskiy, Salduskiy and a number of other rayons of the republic. In addition to the lists of occupations recommended for retired people, in these places they carry on information activity concerning at-home types of work, work with the shorter workday and work with the shorter workweek. Officials of divisions annually conduct surveys and polls of people of pensionable age, thereby obtaining data for forecasting employment of the population in coming years. As a consequence the percentage of working pensioners in these rayons is considerably higher than the republic average.

At the same time we are still not altogether satisfied with the work of Rezeknenskiy, Ludzenskiy, Kraslavskiy and Balvskiy rayon social security divisions. These rayons are lagging 12-16 percent behind the Latvian republic average for employment. Of course, we are not forgetting that in these rayons there are relatively few major industrial enterprises, so that pensioners have fewer opportunities to select work that suits their desires and capabilities. This means that there must be more vigorous advertising of the vacancies that do exist in the rayon's enterprises and more vigor must be shown in seeking opportunities for expansion of such a progressive form as work at home. Local radio and rayon newspapers must play their role in this. Nor can we forget personal conversations which division personnel have with retired people.

In Kraslavskiy Rayon they have shown interesting initiative in attracting retired people into the workplace. The rayon's retired persons' council issued an appeal to nonworking pensioners to help agriculture during the harvesting campaign. The appeal met with a response, and every day 20 or 30 retired people set off for the rayon's kolkhozes and sovkhozes. We would be happy if this experience were applied in other rayons of the republic.

Experience shows that over the first 5 years after retirement the working capacity of people is fully retained in most cases; for all practical purposes a man can work just as energetically as before retirement. Naturally, if we take this category of retired people, the percentage of those employed in industry and agriculture is rather high among them. Our figures show that today every other pensioner of working age is employed in the republic. This means that we need to take this into account, as is done, say, in Salduskiy, Ogrskiy and Limbzhskiy rayons. Their results exceed the republic average by 30-40 percent.

Placement of people of pensionable age in jobs is no simple matter, and many directors of enterprises and organizations even today have not been able to realize that when they hire a retired person, they are performing a task of state importance. Directors of enterprises who complain about the shortage of personnel sometimes forget retired people or overlook them out of some deep-seated habit. Yet many of the retired people who are not working today might go back into production if acceptable conditions were created for them. For example, it has become habitual to see notice boards in front of the entrance of every enterprise announcing the need for mechanics, milling machine operators, lathe operators and welders. We could make this list longer if we wished. But here is the paradox--sometimes there are pensioners living right next to the enterprise who in the past were skilled workers and who for health reasons cannot work a full day in production. Why, then, not hire two or three pensioners and divide each job slot by the corresponding number of people. The wage would be paid in the same manner.

One more thing. See how often in organizations and enterprises we encounter a huge number of young technical secretaries, clerks and officeworkers. What if retired people were hired for these positions? First of all, quite a few young workhands would be made available. At the same time the retired people can do office work just as well as their predecessors.

Statistical data show that the percentage of male pensioners employed in production is somewhat higher than for women. This is natural--women have quite a few concerns about the house. In our view it is here that involving them in work at home could play its role if the conditions are acceptable. There is every opportunity for this in the republic, we need only to intensify elementary popularization of this type of work. It is no secret after all that many people do not altogether understand the nature of at-home work and its peculiarities. Talks about expanding the forms of at-home

work have been under way for a number of years. Women who do sewing, weaving and knitting can work at home today. As we see, the list is very restricted. These are mainly women's occupations. Yet retired men could also work at home, and, what is most important, they would like to. They could be enlisted to work at home rendering consumer services as tailors, cobblers and jewelers, repairing timepieces, and so on.

Recently old-age pensioners and disabled persons who have partial or complete higher education have frequently been applying to social security agencies. They are offering their services to work at home as translators, draftsmen and economics statisticians. That kind of work might be organized in the Rigas Ekspresis Production Association. It would seem that organizing this type of work would be of considerable benefit to the association, while those receiving old-age and disability pensions would finally get work that interests them. Moreover, to create a special section at Rigas Ekspresis would not require major changes in the specific way in which the enterprise operates. Within the republic there is experience, quite considerable experience, in organizing work at home in the multisector combine Sarma. What is needed, then, is only the initiative and interest on the part of the managers in question.

Much has been done in the republic to involve pensioners in the work process, but there is much more still to be done. The future development of our socialist economy will depend largely on the initiative and creativity with which we undertake to solve this problem.

7045

CSO: 1828

## LABOR

### MOLDAVIAN LABOR SUPPLY, PERSONNEL TURNOVER, JOB PLACEMENT

Kishinev SOVETSKAYA MOLDAVIYA in Russian 21 Oct 80 p 2

[Article by A. Barkar', first deputy chairman of Moldavian State Committee for Labor, Kishinev: "Taking Into Account the Pros and Cons"]

[Text] Available manpower reserves must be used to the maximum to furnish manpower to the national economy, as indicated by the 25th party congress. One such reserve is to take steps to further reduce personnel turnover. As noted in the decree of the CPSU Central Committee, USSR Council of Ministers and AUCCTU entitled "On Further Strengthening of Work Discipline and Reduction of Personnel Turnover in the National Economy," under present conditions of the growing scale of production, the increasing complexity of business ties, and the faster rate of scientific-technical progress, every hour and every minute of work time, strict observance of work rules and creation of a stable work force in every production unit are becoming more important.

Where is it best to work? This question cannot be answered briefly. The process whereby personnel move from one job to another is related on the one hand to the elimination of jobs and on the other to creation of new jobs and the need to fill vacancies. The republic's workers are moving from rural areas to the city, from one city to another, and from the city to rural areas. Scientific-technical progress is invigorating this process. Other objective reasons why people move is the progressive restructuring of the sectoral pattern of production and the location of the productive forces, improvement of the organization of work, of production and of management, and so on.

The stability of personnel can be achieved only by performing a set of organizational, engineering, economic, social and psychological measures. Failure to meet the specific needs of workers has an effect on the rate at which people change jobs. It is very important, then, to improve the mechanism for managing labor mobility. Regulating the process of distribution according to plan has importance here. We would like to note in this connection the emergence of a new form of manpower distribution and redistribution--the service for job placement and public information.



In our republic bureaus for job placement were first created 10 years ago in four large cities. There are now 10 bureaus in operation, while in the country there are more than 500. They act as intermediaries in placing individuals in jobs, helping citizens to exercise their right guaranteed by the constitution to choose their occupation, their type of study and work in accordance with their vocation, abilities, vocational training, education and the needs of society.

Creation of the bureaus made it possible to improve manpower distribution and redistribution. Last year more than 50,000 persons obtained jobs through the bureaus, and enterprises and organizations being put into operation were given priority help in filling positions. Job placement through the bureaus makes it possible to reduce to less than half the time individuals spend between jobs. For instance, in Tiraspol' the average interval per person is 15 days, but the interval before job placement after the bureau is visited is only 5 days. Thus in the first half of this year there was a theoretical saving of 73,500 man-days in the city.

The decree of the CPSU Central Committee, USSR Council of Ministers and AUCCTU on strengthening work discipline and reducing personnel turnover requires executive committees of city and rayon soviets of people's deputies to draft and carry out measures to further develop the network of job placement bureaus and to improve the organization of their activity, and to apply more widely the experience of cities and rayons where hiring is done with the help of local labor agencies. Another important factor in regulating the process of redistribution of manpower is centralizing public information about the manpower needs of enterprises and organizations and opportunities for job placement.

In Moldavia all public information on the economy's manpower needs within the republic is concentrated in labor agencies.

Data on available jobs and vacancies are concentrated in the bureaus and in authorized committees. For example, as of 1 July 1980 there were more than 21,000 of them in the republic. Workers who apply are offered a wide selection of jobs according to their specialization. For instance, at present the Kishinev bureau can offer jobs to a fitter or mechanic at 124 enterprises, to a lathe operator at 33, to a truck driver at 29, to a mason at 25, and so on. Centralization of information conforms to the highest degree to the planning of the distribution of labor resources and to creation of permanent personnel at enterprises.

There is also organized and purposive job placement of young people. In Tiraspol', for example, a vocational guidance center has been set up which does practical work related to studying the desires, aptitude and abilities of secondary students and coordinates the work of the city's regular schools, vocational and technical schools, enterprises and construction and other organizations in the field of vocational guidance. Similar centers have been set up in Bel'tsy and Bendery. In cities and rayons these matters

are turned over to bureaus for job placement of individuals. All of this helps to improve job placement of graduates of regular secondary schools and helps them to adapt better in the workplace.

In recent years personnel turnover in the industrial sector has been on the decline. For instance, the turnover coefficient dropped from 27.8 percent in 1975 to 24.7 percent in 1979. The personnel turnover coefficient is low in the industry of Leninskiy Rayon in Kishinev and in Rybnitsa. At the same time the level of turnover in industry and construction of Yedinetaskiy Rayon in the first half of this year was twice as high as the same index in Komratskiy Rayon.

High personnel turnover affects all aspects of an enterprise's performance. It tends to reduce labor productivity, to bring about underutilization of production capacities, faster wear on machines, which is caused by poor training and frequent personnel changes, and additional expenses are incurred in recruiting workers. Frequent changes of personnel hamper development of the movement for the communist attitude toward work in collectives and detract from the creative activity of the workers. A worker who has not altogether mastered a new job is more apt to have an accident or injury in the workplace.

An analysis has shown that turnover is a "youth" problem. Last year 65 percent of all people changing jobs were under age 30. The higher rate of turnover of young personnel is explained by shortcomings in organization, norm setting and working conditions, assignment of people outside their specialty, violations of legislation on work benefits and remuneration, and the limited funds and methods of holding young people at enterprises. This group of workers requires special attention on the part of professional managers and public organizations of enterprises and specific measures related to their workplace and social adaptation.

The characteristics of personnel turnover cross-tabulated with length of service indicates instability of a number of work collectives. A survey showed that 27 percent of workers changed their occupation when they moved to another enterprise. In most cases this change necessitates certain expenditures to train the worker. This accounts for the high share of apprentices among those moving to new jobs on their own initiative.

In our view ministries, state committees and departments should improve methods guidance of subordinate associations, industrial enterprises, construction organizations and other organizations in solving the organizational problems of forming teams, of determining the number of workers in the teams so as to take into account possible combination of occupations and functions, of developing work stations in which workers attend more than one machine, and so on.

There are many aspects of the problem of personnel turnover and stability of an enterprise's work force. Only a comprehensive consideration of each of them will offer a solution to the exceedingly important socioeconomic problems of transformation in the workplace.

**DEMOGRAPHY**

**NATIONAL COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION. DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION OF  
VARIOUS REPUBLICS ACCORDING TO MOST NUMEROUS NATIONALITIES AND LANGUAGE**

**Moscow VESTNIK STATISTIKI in Russian No 9, Sep 80 pp 61-70**

**[Text]**

# USSR POPULATION BY NATIONALITIES<sup>1</sup>

7. Distribution of Population of Uzbek SSR by Most Numerous Nationalities and Language

	Numbers of given nationality	Mother tongue considered to be:			Total number of persons of given nationality speaking a second language of the peoples of the USSR			
		tongue of own nationality	tongue of other nationality		tongue of own nation.	tongue of other nationality		
			Russian	Uzbek		Russian	Uzbek	other
Total population . . . . .	16 309 307	14 720 552	398 317	133 080	135 758	71 165	7 179 743	455 688
including								
Uzbeks . . . . .	10 569 007	10 444 722	43 463	—	50 822	20 038	5 591 151	144 512
Karakalpakhs . . . . .	237 788	286 046	994	4 973	5 773	344	131 491	8 355
Russians . . . . .	1 065 058	1 064 614	—	465	579	640	—	97 642
Tatars . . . . .	648 764	537 906	80 368	8 726	21 764	17 780	486 758	32 878
Kazakhs . . . . .	620 136	586 903	7 639	15 709	9 885	2 870	301 319	29 908
Tadzhiks . . . . .	594 027	755 135	5 003	33 966	523	5 324	206 636	1 188
Koreans . . . . .	163 062	101 317	61 544	143	58	—	87 576	4 997
Kirgiz . . . . .	142 182	114 334	639	26 617	592	1 150	52 523	31 834
Ukrainians . . . . .	113 826	51 348	62 196	113	129	9 973	45 938	3 722
Jews . . . . .	99 908	44 677	52 836	212	2 183	4 575	40 633	4 811
Turkmen . . . . .	92 285	85 459	1 362	5 038	456	430	33 485	15 706
Azerbaijanis . . . . .	59 779	52 792	4 136	1 890	961	711	29 210	14 750

8. Distribution of Population of Uzbek SSR Karakalpakhs by Most Numerous Nationalities and Language

	Numbers of given nationality	Mother tongue considered to be:			Total number of persons of given nationality speaking a second language of the peoples of the USSR			
		tongue of own nationality	tongue of other nationality		tongue of own nation-ality	tongue of other nationality		
			Russian	Kara-kalpak		Russian	Uzbek	other
Total population . . . . .	966 800	867 228	8 614	19 949	2 349	2 480	353 089	25 081
including								
Karakalpakhs . . . . .	281 809	278 030	670	—	660	275	125 705	6 572
Uzbeks . . . . .	285 400	273 603	890	10 005	972	307	104 935	—
Kazakhs . . . . .	343 926	229 989	839	9 334	137	1 021	96 484	9 072
Turkmen . . . . .	48 655	47 186	119	176	117	64	12 125	7 972
Russians . . . . .	21 267	21 246	—	12	10	22	—	1 420

<sup>1</sup> Continuation of publication of main results of population census (for part see VESTNIK STATISTIKI Nos. 2,6,7,8); data on national makeup of population of the USSR and RSFSR published in No 7, Ukrainian SSR and Belorussian SSR in No 8 1960



9. Distribution of Population in Oblasts of the Uzbek SSR by Most Numerous Nationalities and Language

	Numbers of given nationality	Mother tongue considered to be:				Total number of persons of given nationality speaking a second language of the peoples of the USSR			
		tongue of own nationality		of other nationality		tongue of own nationality		tongue of other nationality	
		Russian	Uzbek	other	nationality	Russian	Uzbek	other	
<b>Andizhanskaya Oblast</b>	<b>1 354 875</b>	<b>1 313 656</b>	<b>12 363</b>	<b>28 293</b>	<b>634</b>	<b>1 767</b>	<b>746 546</b>	<b>27 000</b>	<b>3 619</b>
including									
Uzbeks	1 150 417	1 148 502	1 725	—	190	664	668 529	—	2 866
Kirgiz	56 959	42 550	124	14 258	27	245	24 334	11 701	126
Russians	52 496	33 531	3 427	37	8	29	—	8 916	510
Tatars	37 793	17 879	104	797	36	343	28 404	3 458	64
Tadzhiks	20 577	2 007	50	2 559	35	161	5 960	8 618	43
Uighurs	11 667	—	—	9 797	13	—	6 536	640	37
<b>Bukharskaya Oblast</b>	<b>1 267 459</b>	<b>1 222 376</b>	<b>24 112</b>	<b>3 736</b>	<b>17 234</b>	<b>4 151</b>	<b>797 863</b>	<b>27 129</b>	<b>53 486</b>
including									
Uzbeks	934 555	920 510	3 325	—	10 720	1 226	590 697	—	49 935
Russians	137 451	137 368	—	29	34	27	—	12 363	1 865
Kazakhs	70 242	69 540	454	226	20	78	40 362	5 234	82
Tatars	40 437	34 226	5 775	403	33	1 034	29 956	1 625	143
Tadzhiks	19 726	19 235	233	252	8	42	11 715	2 868	5
Karakalpakhs	11 493	4 651	93	1 694	5 055	32	5 849	1 021	714
Ukrainians	10 744	5 835	4 865	10	4	751	5 221	223	32
Jews	7 859	6 195	1 605	30	36	379	5 167	290	75
<b>Dzhirgatal'skaya Oblast</b>	<b>812 127</b>	<b>801 304</b>	<b>7 266</b>	<b>3 166</b>	<b>289</b>	<b>479</b>	<b>248 229</b>	<b>8 183</b>	<b>1 181</b>
including									
Uzbeks	362 173	361 347	730	—	96	175	202 708	—	587
Kazakhs	35 515	35 111	153	226	23	26	20 473	671	20
Russians	34 021	34 010	—	6	5	3	—	2 541	396
Tatars	18 671	17 109	1 357	183	22	156	14 816	723	23
Kirgiz	15 307	15 069	27	309	2	24	5 436	2 079	9
Tadzhiks	7 752	7 101	116	522	11	21	3 471	1 618	71
<b>Kashgariyinskaya Oblast</b>	<b>1 124 942</b>	<b>1 113 661</b>	<b>4 768</b>	<b>1 947</b>	<b>3 646</b>	<b>654</b>	<b>648 130</b>	<b>21 353</b>	<b>8 211</b>
including									
Uzbeks	975 006	972 224	903	—	1 879	272	583 818	—	4 364
Tadzhiks	55 054	54 252	103	680	19	100	24 063	11 606	76

continued

	Numbers of given nationality	Mother tongue considered to be:				Total number of persons of given nationality speaking a second language of the peoples of the USSR			
		tongue of own nationality		tongue of other nationality		tongue of own nationality		tongue of other nationality	
		Russian	Uzbek	Russian	other	Russian	Uzbek	Russian	other
Russians . . . . .	33 585	33 554	—	—	9	19	4 353	—	343
Tatars . . . . .	26 371	24 787	1 278	210	96	117	1 338	21 171	30
Turkmen . . . . .	12 469	12 366	41	61	1	12	1 654	6 967	3
Hamanganskaya Oblast . . . . .	1 100 536	1 087 580	7 967	2 879	2 312	1 472	57 575	464 901	6 296
including . . . . .									
Uzbeks . . . . .	917 840	915 973	1 591	866	276	614	—	410 042	5 166
Tadzhiks . . . . .	96 275	94 203	177	—	27	163	41 255	23 319	396
Russians . . . . .	29 650	29 634	—	11	14	15	5 447	—	430
Tatars . . . . .	26 941	24 090	2 249	571	31	405	2 532	20 110	45
Kirgiz . . . . .	14 797	13 653	35	1 091	18	77	5 203	4 035	45
Samarkandskaya Oblast . . . . .	1 782 365	1 670 299	35 606	18 291	36 220	10 144	31 378	910 719	34 799
including . . . . .									
Uzbeks . . . . .	1 356 839	1 339 091	5 160	—	53 968	5 565	—	754 954	30 422
Russians . . . . .	118 477	118 348	—	53	76	79	6 880	—	1 767
Tadzhiks . . . . .	86 557	84 699	821	1 007	30	321	12 221	42 118	58
Tatars . . . . .	75 315	67 236	6 852	970	255	1 583	3 041	58 675	225
Persians . . . . .	15 545	1 579	370	13 352	344	—	252	11 016	103
Jews . . . . .	14 329	8 004	5 473	21	831	713	466	7 379	982
Azerbaijanis . . . . .	11 917	10 844	582	426	65	149	3 055	5 682	44
Armenians . . . . .	10 801	7 255	3 822	8	16	713	156	6 565	80
Sverdlovskaya Oblast . . . . .	898 747	888 796	14 032	12 184	1 775	4 971	45 145	255 898	12 299
including . . . . .									
Uzbeks . . . . .	694 580	690 811	3 127	—	642	1 440	—	209 561	11 258
Tadzhiks . . . . .	113 032	102 523	613	9 805	91	1 474	35 653	20 071	62
Russians . . . . .	38 801	38 733	—	40	28	28	2 995	—	407
Tatars . . . . .	18 516	14 378	3 602	508	28	978	1 508	12 282	44
Turkmen . . . . .	13 685	12 237	260	1 149	9	180	3 045	5 610	29
Syrdarinskaya Oblast . . . . .	447 748	422 215	19 042	5 503	988	2 804	19 427	245 210	1 883
including . . . . .									
Uzbeks . . . . .	250 081	247 867	2 006	—	208	749	—	186 547	947
Russians . . . . .	66 501	66 468	—	13	20	16	3 858	—	406
Tatars . . . . .	32 906	27 742	4 738	407	21	1 146	1 400	34 530	42

continued

	Numbers of given nationality	Mother tongue considered to be:				Total number of persons of given nationality speaking a second language of the peoples of the USSR			
		own nationality	tongue of			tongue of own nationality	tongue of other nationality		
			Russian	Uzbek	other		Russian	Uzbek	other
Tadzhiks	32 065	28 912	516	2 719	38	207	17 080	6 602	26
Kazakhs	17 722	17 131	365	213	12	65	11 010	1 571	11
Koreans	12 296	7 380	4 885	17	5	—	6 690	337	12
Azerbaijanis	8 449	7 832	255	344	18	20	4 604	1 933	22
Tashkentskaya Oblast including	1 703 672	1 687 776	82 406	19 174	23 337	9 696	986 420	63 627	8 374
Uzbeks	835 790	828 823	6 111	—	836	1 833	518 458	—	3 491
Russians	313 181	313 004	—	74	103	113	—	10 616	2 311
Kazakhs	208 002	197 730	2 333	7 777	162	875	108 157	19 961	255
Tatars	171 123	133 014	16 540	1 903	19 665	3 847	134 823	4 655	560
Koreans	73 981	48 401	25 517	50	13	—	41 036	1 066	145
Tadzhiks	67 467	60 751	883	5 683	150	423	34 107	11 563	224
Ukrainians	21 286	8 945	12 281	9	51	1 590	8 230	499	68
Azerbaijanis	15 347	13 680	621	484	562	140	6 953	3 946	140
Chirchikskaya Oblast including	1 666 468	1 649 844	26 388	20 426	2 836	8 317	688 471	82 483	8 383
Uzbeks	1 327 854	1 324 442	2 947	—	495	894	536 677	—	6 394
Russians	129 355	129 285	—	24	46	36	—	7 960	922
Tadzhiks	87 306	78 296	362	8 589	59	2 175	18 760	32 564	202
Tatars	67 388	49 331	6 181	673	1 203	1 258	42 596	3 976	134
Kirgiz	37 201	27 322	117	9 719	43	700	9 942	10 252	226
Khorezmskaya Oblast including	747 011	738 306	6 600	4 828	216	1 196	271 904	10 380	1 481
Uzbeks	697 965	696 229	1 639	—	97	806	256 566	—	1 099
Russians	14 625	14 576	—	47	2	37	—	3 641	185
Kazakhs	11 206	9 196	137	1 865	8	64	3 346	2 812	16
Tatars	8 503	6 643	1 311	538	11	153	5 440	1 569	52

10. Distribution of Population of Kazakh SSR and Oblasts by Most Numerous Nationalities and Language.

	Numbers of given nationality	Mother tongue considered to be:			Total number of persons of given nationality speaking a second language of the peoples of the USSR			
		tongue of own nationality	tongue of other nationality		tongue of own nationality	tongue of other nationality		
			Russian	Kazakh		Russian	Kazakh	other
Kazakh SSR: total . . . . .	14 684 283	13 310 634	1 330 641	19 831	24 157	100 816	4 348 582	93 116
including								
Kazakhs . . . . .	5 289 349	5 215 719	72 311	—	1 319	17 318	2 676 599	—
Russians . . . . .	5 991 205	5 989 210	—	353	1 642	1 168	—	39 837
Ukrainians . . . . .	900 207	580 735	318 039	422	1 011	—	524 593	4 141
Uzbeks . . . . .	897 964	371 176	526 424	95	289	53 379	324 001	3 381
Tatars . . . . .	313 460	236 001	68 700	8 349	530	10 238	212 548	8 479
Belorussians . . . . .	263 295	252 590	6 381	3 469	855	947	105 982	8 968
Uighurs . . . . .	181 491	69 132	112 045	17	297	11 229	62 715	341
Koreans . . . . .	117 943	141 565	4 119	1 898	361	—	74 105	11 931
Azerbaijanis . . . . .	91 981	51 561	40 311	73	39	—	44 651	535
Dzungars . . . . .	73 345	66 577	5 773	455	540	782	44 048	4 971
Others . . . . .	22 491	21 417	498	428	148	—	13 878	804
Akt'yubinskaya Oblast . . . . .	630 363	554 826	74 483	638	326	4 338	224 768	3 766
including								
Kazakhs . . . . .	328 392	324 968	3 390	—	34	885	162 440	—
Russians . . . . .	158 298	158 256	—	12	30	23	—	1 692
Ukrainians . . . . .	74 794	26 422	46 342	5	25	2 385	23 574	633
Uzbeks . . . . .	30 084	18 806	11 223	19	36	—	17 312	220
Tatars . . . . .	15 570	12 169	2 963	408	10	376	10 713	580
Alma-Atinskaya Oblast . . . . .	850 216	804 595	42 100	1 243	2 290	2 383	275 081	15 226
including								
Kazakhs . . . . .	319 634	316 810	2 707	—	117	610	138 967	—
Russians . . . . .	287 459	287 372	—	11	76	37	—	3 809
Uighurs . . . . .	88 556	87 242	837	440	37	—	40 251	8 537
Uzbeks . . . . .	60 664	44 672	15 943	27	22	—	40 425	322
Ukrainians . . . . .	20 614	19 768	596	43	207	137	14 148	1 034
Azerbaijanis . . . . .	17 299	7 317	9 970	4	8	985	6 523	149
Tatars . . . . .	10 013	7 776	1 869	332	36	196	6 892	403
Others . . . . .								
Kazakhs . . . . .								
Russians . . . . .								
Ukrainians . . . . .								
Uzbeks . . . . .								
Tatars . . . . .								
Others . . . . .								



	Numbers of given nationality	Mother tongue considered to be			Total number of persons of given nationality speaking a second language of the peoples of the USSR				
		Russian	Kazakh	other	Language of other nationalities				
					of own nationality	Russian	Kazakh	other	
Vostochno-Kazakhstanskaya Oblast including									
Kazakhs	678 001	541 874	25 369	1 134	264	4 863	137 847	3 221	1 830
Russians	223 200	218 811	4 801	—	27	1 286	111 045	—	42
Ukrainians	304 702	594 591	—	35	76	57	—	2 656	1 364
Tatars	15 881	5 904	9 973	1	3	1 933	5 310	50	17
Others	8 794	5 074	2 748	967	5	553	5 206	342	19
Saryevskaya Oblast including									
Kazakhs	308 000	300 146	8 500	359	84	703	124 067	3 187	479
Russians	281 072	280 472	1 002	—	16	263	114 712	—	66
Ukrainians	67 867	67 854	—	6	7	6	—	2 657	206
Tatars	4 963	3 641	1 179	143	—	90	3 135	533	4
Others	3 905	1 970	1 936	—	—	230	1 753	36	7
Dzhambul'skaya Oblast including									
Kazakhs	931 204	873 356	54 631	2 255	1 082	3 276	348 268	8 724	3 254
Russians	410 383	408 074	2 301	—	55	502	196 752	—	392
Ukrainians	283 068	282 978	—	20	70	47	—	3 220	1 813
Tatars	60 146	53 540	15 800	36	10	—	47 988	306	121
Others	36 060	17 979	18 074	9	7	1 026	15 578	322	52
Uzbeks	18 111	17 002	750	350	29	130	13 285	620	37
Dzungars	17 152	16 972	122	31	24	—	10 342	565	106
Tatars	16 018	12 409	2 665	906	17	339	10 919	574	61
Azerbaijanis	12 214	11 710	391	21	92	55	8 428	362	46
Koreans	11 305	6 776	4 280	6	3	—	5 836	53	21

continued

	Numbers of nationality given	Mother tongue considered to be:				Total number of persons of given nationality speaking a second language of the people of the USSR			
		tongue of own nationality	tongue of other nationality			tongue of own nationality	tongue of other nationality		
			Russian	Kazakh	other		Russian	Kazakh	other
<b>Dzhebzganskaya Oblast</b> including	<b>449 153</b>	<b>403 153</b>	<b>45 431</b>	<b>247</b>	<b>322</b>	<b>5 173</b>	<b>147 911</b>	<b>1 482</b>	<b>2 217</b>
Kazakhs	184 253	182 170	2 129	—	14	127	103 684	—	55
Russians	172 857	172 849	—	8	40	33	—	835	1 704
Ukrainians	30 963	14 180	16 780	3	12	2 891	12 976	77	62
German	23 729	13 463	10 241	10	15	—	12 568	162	65
Tatars	10 123	7 204	2 778	121	20	433	6 564	172	42
Belorussians	6 992	2 516	44 59	—	17	674	2 316	13	29
<b>Karagandinskaya Oblast</b> including	<b>1 254 764</b>	<b>1 069 176</b>	<b>184 500</b>	<b>537</b>	<b>1 651</b>	<b>18 708</b>	<b>315 153</b>	<b>2 891</b>	<b>6 722</b>
Kazakhs	181 460	171 977	9 424	—	39	1 924	121 051	—	112
Russians	625 773	605 526	—	29	218	156	—	1 423	5 175
Ukrainians	130 863	81 570	40 185	37	61	—	74 729	345	167
Tatars	42 179	31 564	60 786	6	39	8 835	46 799	196	112
Belorussians	30 504	11 463	10 904	308	50	1 473	28 463	372	96
Koreans	10 656	4 639	5 904	4	4	2 162	10 508	20	13
<b>Kyzyl-Ordinskaya Oblast</b> including	<b>582 181</b>	<b>542 325</b>	<b>19 074</b>	<b>501</b>	<b>291</b>	<b>3 631</b>	<b>183 119</b>	<b>2 888</b>	<b>2 051</b>
Kazakhs	428 042	426 675	1 307	—	60	356	157 261	—	217
Russians	86 084	86 058	—	8	18	23	—	1 727	1 509
Ukrainians	12 603	5 891	6 702	8	2	2 123	5 470	67	27
Tatars	6 087	4 625	1 266	9	1	—	7 057	125	11
<b>Kokchetavskaya Oblast</b> including	<b>816 166</b>	<b>548 214</b>	<b>89 656</b>	<b>509</b>	<b>7 418</b>	<b>4 389</b>	<b>288 794</b>	<b>1 559</b>	<b>3 898</b>
Kazakhs	181 789	159 025	2 725	—	29	720	115 053	—	41
Russians	249 100	248 954	—	4	132	73	—	718	1 105
Ukrainians	76 436	50 049	25 954	23	412	—	44 794	320	267
Belorussians	58 465	22 907	35 542	2	14	3 266	18 817	83	49
Tatars	18 508	7 277	11 235	2	74	619	6 469	33	57
	11 022	8 450	2 161	410	1	278	7 003	261	16

continued

	Numbers of given nationality	Mother tongue considered to be:			Total number of persons of given nationality speaking a second language of the peoples of the USSR		
		tongue of own nationality			tongue of other nationality		
		Russian	Kazakh	other	Russian	Kazakh	other
<b>Kostanayskaya Oblast</b>	<b>942 938</b>	<b>744 324</b>	<b>197 440</b>	<b>911</b>	<b>13 729</b>	<b>1 401</b>	<b>3 246</b>
including							
Kazakhs	156 239	147 677	8 531	31	2 317	—	61
Russians	444 316	444 155	—	149	86	656	2 494
Ukrainians	162 242	50 287	102 618	32	7 291	226	101
Germans	94 844	50 025	44 413	149	—	19 983	151
Belorussians	30 865	11 061	19 768	34	1 617	125	72
Tatars	20 463	13 881	6 380	40	965	253	40
<b>Mangyshlakskaya Oblast</b>	<b>232 843</b>	<b>240 877</b>	<b>11 306</b>	<b>205</b>	<b>2 128</b>	<b>628</b>	<b>1 799</b>
including							
Kazakhs	111 879	111 129	740	10	178	—	196
Russians	100 013	99 982	—	28	24	390	1 253
Ukrainians	9 335	5 092	4 243	6	1 027	22	21
Members of Russian ethnic groups	5 841	5 566	234	41	43	4 572	38
including Lezghians	4 314	4 173	117	24	20	3 106	24
Tatars	4 728	3 572	1 105	9	253	85	17
Azerbaidjani	2 528	2 216	308	4	51	3	5
<b>Pavlodarskaya Oblast</b>	<b>687 224</b>	<b>686 943</b>	<b>110 477</b>	<b>524</b>	<b>7 783</b>	<b>2 725</b>	<b>2 373</b>
including							
Kazakhs	216 113	211 113	4 987	13	1 224	—	34
Russians	370 916	370 750	—	105	82	1 653	1 917
Ukrainians	83 185	32 842	50 314	17	4 276	152	73
Germans	81 467	49 125	32 309	35	—	339	44
Tatars	16 801	12 377	4 010	6	634	323	18
Belorussians	11 511	4 102	7 385	14	601	18	31
<b>Severo-Kazakhstanskaya Oblast</b>	<b>573 709</b>	<b>514 248</b>	<b>87 818</b>	<b>577</b>	<b>4 183</b>	<b>887</b>	<b>1 837</b>
including							
Kazakhs	95 265	92 329	2 885	48	703	—	47
Russians	363 142	363 036	—	94	70	421	1 150
Ukrainians	39 839	15 562	24 300	17	2 070	37	25
Germans	37 634	21 650	15 908	17	—	66	40
Tatars	15 594	12 342	2 945	13	440	310	13
Belorussians	7 235	2 651	4 576	8	417	22	35

continued

	Numbers of given nationality	Mother tongue considered to be				Total number of persons of given nationality speaking a second language of the peoples of the USSR			
		tongue of own nationality	tongue of other nationalities			tongue of own nation- ality	tongue of other nationality		
			Russian	Kazakh	other		Russian	Kazakh	other
<b>Samipolietinskaya Oblast</b> including	<b>773 489</b>	<b>736 492</b>	<b>35 434</b>	<b>1 003</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>3 836</b>	<b>243 833</b>	<b>5 063</b>	<b>2 170</b>
Kazakhs	371 530	368 341	2 814	-	75	611	185 854	-	159
Russians	372 576	372 476	-	34	81	56	-	3 736	1 609
Ukrainians	44 057	31 432	12 526	104	15	1 950	24 106	625	63
Belorussians	20 065	9 455	10 544	14	12	-	8 562	106	34
Tatars	18 011	14 763	2 939	902	5	421	13 181	953	26
<b>Taldy-Burganskaya Oblast</b> including	<b>682 769</b>	<b>633 879</b>	<b>28 484</b>	<b>1 870</b>	<b>330</b>	<b>1 828</b>	<b>291 400</b>	<b>6 873</b>	<b>1 030</b>
Kazakhs	303 263	303 443	1 750	-	81	417	139 506	-	100
Russians	246 523	246 433	-	36	64	34	-	3 435	731
Ukrainians	38 661	27 136	8 485	30	10	-	24 309	185	25
Belorussians	24 791	23 911	412	455	13	-	9 528	1 814	9
Tatars	12 215	8 717	3 491	5	2	-	7 345	37	10
Ukrainians	11 237	4 951	6 282	2	2	777	4 405	94	19
Tatars	9 733	7 246	1 678	781	26	221	6 526	539	17
<b>Turgayshaya Oblast</b> including	<b>270 185</b>	<b>250 650</b>	<b>38 775</b>	<b>171</b>	<b>309</b>	<b>3 624</b>	<b>63 837</b>	<b>602</b>	<b>1 300</b>
Kazakhs	99 469	97 764	1 667	-	8	470	52 939	-	30
Russians	85 933	85 896	-	4	33	26	-	365	981
Ukrainians	35 003	17 514	17 498	3	18	1 800	14 862	88	73
Belorussians	10 145	4 505	5 535	-	15	468	4 037	8	34
Tatars	8 653	6 794	1 749	100	10	296	5 929	137	36



continued

	Numbers of given nationality	Mother tongue considered to be				Total number of persons of given nationality speaking a second language of the peoples of the USSR			
		tongue of own nationality		tongue of other nationality		tongue of own national	Russian	Kazakh	other
		Russian	Kazakh	Russian	other				
<b>Ural'skaya Oblast</b> including	<b>546 881</b>	<b>550 000</b>	<b>33 487</b>	<b>776</b>	<b>236</b>	<b>4 168</b>	<b>173 783</b>	<b>3 677</b>	<b>1 137</b>
Kazakhs	301 622	299 670	3 919	—	33	898	144 165	—	82
Russians	217 743	217 654	—	36	63	54	—	3 573	926
Ukrainians	28 141	13 176	18 953	5	7	1 914	11 117	161	17
Tatars	12 855	9 950	2 281	620	4	672	2 088	564	12
Belorussians	5 835	2 410	3 385	—	9	379	—	36	23
<b>Yekimovskaya Oblast</b> including	<b>889 388</b>	<b>688 384</b>	<b>118 003</b>	<b>571</b>	<b>3 822</b>	<b>7 387</b>	<b>283 816</b>	<b>2 088</b>	<b>3 334</b>
Kazakhs	167 775	163 810	3 944	—	21	908	127 561	—	43
Russians	380 360	380 367	—	16	147	115	—	1 130	2 137
Ukrainians	101 654	68 083	34 345	20	106	—	62 153	292	153
Tatars	78 634	31 450	41 158	2	34	3 080	28 087	114	60
Belorussians	23 441	9 433	13 862	—	26	1 132	8 707	23	39
Tatars	19 544	14 815	4 362	302	15	673	13 667	310	23
<b>Chirchikskaya Oblast</b> including	<b>1 864 957</b>	<b>1 494 888</b>	<b>83 129</b>	<b>4 231</b>	<b>3 649</b>	<b>4 862</b>	<b>483 629</b>	<b>22 727</b>	<b>12 768</b>
Kazakhs	797 834	793 525	3 946	—	463	639	281 304	—	4 380
Russians	300 365	300 229	—	37	98	71	—	4 964	2 628
Uzbeks	227 205	222 976	1 964	2 112	133	612	81 222	7 782	322
Ukrainians	58 742	38 649	11 832	32	29	—	32 650	508	101
Tatars	37 756	31 106	5 856	366	206	770	26 509	1 273	384
Belorussians	34 830	13 901	20 816	11	12	1 451	12 124	620	124
Azerbaijanis	24 118	22 736	877	338	165	233	10 931	3 366	1 087
Tatars	15 519	15 131	221	45	123	36	4 737	4 737	2 164
Koreans	11 071	6 821	4 253	8	9	—	5 967	99	24

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## DEMOGRAPHY

### LATVIAN DEMOGRAPHIC DATA DISCUSSED

Riga SOVETSKAYA LATVIYA in Russian 4 Oct 80 p 2

[Article by Ju. Krumins, docent at Latvian State University imeni P. Stucha, candidate of economic sciences: "What the Census Told Us"]

[Text] A brief definition of the purpose of demographic science could, perhaps, be: learn in order to foresee, foresee in order to act. The precision of plans for the development of any sector, whether it is a program for the location of productive forces, housing construction, or production of consumer goods, is unthinkable today without demographic data. In the Accountability Report of the CPSU Central Committee to the 25th Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union Leonid Il'ich Brezhnev said, "The question arises of long-term economic planning relying on the forecasts of population growth in the country, the needs of the economy, and scientific-technical progress." And today, when work on the program of the 11th Five-Year Plan is going forward, demographic aspects are among the many different factors — economic, sociopolitical, geographic, and others — that are being considered.

The basic and most valuable material for demographers is data from the regular census of the population. These figures enrich analysis and make it possible to perform interesting comparisons. And now the results have been totalled for the past year. What was the demographic situation in the republic upon its entry into the 1980's; what trends were observed in preceding decades?

At the beginning of this year Latvia had a population of 2,529,000. In the 40 years of Soviet power the population of the republic has increased 644,000, or more than one-third, and this is despite great losses during the Great Patriotic War. This growth rate exceeds that of many major European countries.

At the same time it must be observed that in the postwar years the number of inhabitants in the republic has risen more slowly than the national average. Therefore, the republic's share in total USSR population has gradually declined from 1.08 percent in 1950 to 0.96 percent in 1980.

This process has occurred very unevenly. Whereas during the 1950's absolute growth rose almost continuously, primarily through the birth rate which reached a maximum of 6.8 births per thousand population in 1958, by the 1960's

the picture had changed and the birth rate showed a tendency to decrease. This also reflected the consequences of the Great Patriotic War, when there was a sharp decline in the birth rate; it was "echoed" 20 years later.

The same pattern of change was observed in the 1970's: the average annual growth rate dropped to 0.72 percent. This is lower than Estonia (0.87 percent) and Lithuania (0.92 percent), and the latter figure is, incidentally, also the figure for the country as a whole.

The primary reason is the low birth rate. In recent years the number of births in the republic has been around 34,000-35,000 a year, which averages 13.6 births per 1,000 population. This is the lowest level in the entire prewar period and the lowest of any Union republic. Latvia has 53-54 new births for each 1,000 women in the age bracket to 49 years; for comparison, the RSFSR has 58, Lithuania and Estonia have 59, and Belorussia has 60. Even in the most productive age group, 20-24 years, the birth rate in our republic is the lowest of any Union republic. Thus, Latvian generations are renewing themselves at a 93 percent rate, which does not even insure simple reproduction of the population.

The problem of activating demographic policy has been discussed by representatives of various fields of knowledge and practical workers. It can only be resolved by comprehensive steps, by using economic and social measures to overcome the stereotype of the small family. It is also important to alter public opinion to raise the prestige of families with two and three children, which are so beneficial to society.

In his book "Tretiy Rebenok" [The Third Child], I. A. Anderson, Secretary of the Central Committee of the Latvian Communist Party, stresses: "We place our hopes above all on the young people, on families which are just forming, on the generation that is now entering marriage. We should do everything we can to see that each young family becomes a full-fledged family with two or three children born at the most favorable time, without postponement until later years. These are the families that especially need material and non-material help."

Profound qualitative changes have occurred in the composition of the population of the Latvian SSR. Thus, the number of working people increases every year. In 1959 52 percent of the entire population of the republic was employed in public production, then in 1970 it was 54 percent and in 1979 had already reached 55 percent. The increase in labor productivity in the sectors of physical production made it possible to release employees and send them to the nonproduction sphere, whose proportion of all employed persons has reached 26 percent. The number of women among workers and employees rises every year. In 1979 644,000 women or 54 percent of the total population were working. This is one of the highest figures among the Union republics (the national average is 51 percent).

The educational level of the population is steadily rising in Latvia. In 1979 there were already 870,000 with higher and completed secondary education, an increase of 59 percent over 1970. This tendency has been felt especially among the working part of the population. In 1959 half of the

persons employed in the national economy had completed or incomplete secondary or higher education; in 1970 it was two-thirds, and today it is four-fifths. The gap in educational levels between urban and rural citizens is diminishing. The levels of education of men and women are converging, and for working women the level is higher than that of men.

Our republic has a high degree of urbanization; 69 percent of the population lives in cities, compared to the USSR average of 63 percent. Estonia has a higher indicator for this, 70 percent, while among the other socialist countries only East Germany is higher (76 percent).

The number of city-dwellers is increasing through natural growth as well as population migration and development of rural towns into cities. Almost half of the city-dwellers in the republic live in Riga, which has a population of 843,000. One out of three Latvians lives in the capital. Only Armenia has a higher concentration of population in the capital; 34 percent of their population lives in Yerevan. Among the other large cities of the republic are Daugavpils (117,000), Liepaja (108,000), Jelgava (69,000), and Jurmala (62,000).

The disproportion in number of men and women is gradually evening out in the republic. In 1959 there were 256,000 more members of the weak sex than the strong sex. In 1970 the differential had declined to 203,000, and by 1979 it was 199,000. The surplus of women is composed of persons in the older age groups and results chiefly from the war. The republic today has 54 percent women (the national average is 53). In the age groups to 40 years the ratio of men and women has basically evened out. There are, however, regional differences. There are more young men in the country and more young women in the cities, which is explained by the fact that women are more likely to migrate to the city. This situation hinders the normal formation of families and thus has a negative impact on population reproduction.

On 17 January 1979 the Latvian SSR had 1,196,000 married persons, which was 6.4 percent more than in 1970. However, total population in the republic had increased even faster, so the proportion of married persons has declined slightly (for the country as a whole it has risen).

We have 685,000 families, covering 90 percent of the population. The remaining 10 percent are single. The proportion of single persons in Latvia is higher than the national average, which is six percent. In Latvia, as in the other republics except the Central Asian republics, family size continues to decline. The average size (family members living together) was 3.1 persons. This is the lowest figure among the Union republics (Estonia also has 3.1 persons per family). The number of families with 2-4 persons in our republic has increased, while the number of families with five or more persons has decreased. The average size of an urban family is 3.08, which is just slightly less than the indicator for the country - 3.13.

Analysis of material from the all-Union census is continuing. Demographers, sociologists, economists, and other scientists are obtaining valuable information for a thorough study of the composition and developmental trends of our population. In December there will be an interrepublic symposium in Riga to discuss contemporary problems of population reproduction. We expect interesting statements and proposals on improving the demographic situation and hope that they will help improve fulfillment of long-term plans for our development.



## DEMOGRAPHY

### REPORTS FROM URBANIZATION SEMINAR REVIEWED

Moscow OBSHCHESTVENNYE NAUKI V SSSR. SERIYA 1 in Russian No 4, Jul-Aug 80 pp 115-118

[Review by P. I. Shlemin of the books "Demograficheskiye Osobennosti Razvitiya Regional'nykh Sistem Rasseleniye v SSSR" (Demographic Characteristics of the Development of Regional Settlement Patterns in the USSR) by Yu. L. Pivovarov, preprint of a report at the 4th Soviet-Polish Seminar on Problems of Urbanization (Kiev, USSR, September 1979), Moscow, Academy of Sciences USSR, Institute of Geography and Kiev, Academy of Sciences Ukrainian SSR, Council on Productive Forces of the Ukrainian SSR, 1979, 19 pages, and "Pozhiloy Chelovek v Urbanizirovannom Obshchestve" (The Elderly Person in Urbanized Society) by N. N. Sachuk and N. N. Lazika-Sachuk, preprint of a report at the 4th Soviet-Polish Seminar (Kiev, USSR, September), Moscow Academy of Sciences USSR, Institute of Geography and Kiev, Academy of Sciences Ukrainian SSR, Council on Productive Forces of the Ukrainian SSR, 1979, 18 pages: "Demographic Aspects of Urbanization in the USSR. Survey"]

[Text] Demographic processes are one of the stable, constantly active factors in the development of society. They have significant inertia and relative self-sufficiency. They exercise a marked influence on the shaping of regional settlement patterns.

The largest differences among regions are observed for indicators such as birth rate. Migration plays an important role in shaping the population of particular regions and their settlement patterns. Between 1926 and 1979 a total of roughly 93 million people moved from the country to the city, producing 68 percent of urban growth; in 1970-1979 the urban population increased 15.6 million (56 percent) (pp 9-10).

The growth in urban population is accompanied by the concentration of population in cities of greater than 100,000 inhabitants, which is characteristic of modern urbanization. This is the objective result of the concentration of production, nonproduction activities, and sociocultural potential in the large cities. In 1959-1979 these cities accounted for 78.5 of the total urban population growth in the USSR. During the same year the number of large cities rose from 148 to 272 and their total population increased from 48.6 to 98.6 million. The proportion of large cities in total population rose from 48.6 percent in 1959 to 60.8 percent in 1979 (Pivovarov, p 11).

Population size and proportion of urban population rose especially in the cities of more than 1 million population. These cities are actively promoting the formation of major regional settlement systems.

The largest cities have fairly high rates of population growth. Whereas the average urban population growth in the country for the period 1959-1979 was 63.3 percent, the rate in cities with over 1 million was higher, for example 150.6 percent in Minsk, 106.6 percent in Yerevan, 93.1 percent in Kiev, 91.9 percent in Tashkent, and 75 percent in Omsk (p 13). Seven other very large cities had growth rates between 50 and 60 percent. The population of Moscow rose by one-third and that of Leningrad by two-fifths (Pivovarov, p 14).

Demographic processes have a marked effect on the specific ways that patterns of settlement form and future prospects for them. In Latvia, for example, among these factors are the low rate of population increase by birth and migration, the lack of demographic reserves in the rural areas, a continuing decline in the birth rate, and virtual full employment of the able-bodied population (94 percent in 1970). The stability of the demographic situation in this republic causes future plans for settlement to focus attention on improving the existing network of populated points and limiting the growth of Riga. Latvia is not contemplating building new cities and urban-type communities because the existing network of urban communities, which is quite evenly distributed and well-developed, makes it possible to achieve further improvements in all types of public services and to increase production chiefly by raising labor productivity (Pivovarov, p 16).

In Tajikistan, by contrast, swiftly developing demographic processes (the high rate of population growth in both the city and the country) intensify the highly dynamic patterns of settlement and the rapid rate of formation of the network of populated points and its future conversion into an inter-related system of settlement.

On the whole, however, the following regional demographic factors have the greatest effect on development of the pattern of settlement of the USSR:

1. the degree of completion of the demographic transition and the availability of demographic resources, the direction of migration, and the like;
2. the character of established population structures;
3. evaluation of the system of settlement and its constituent elements as the "medium" of population reproduction and from the standpoint of attracting or discouraging population.

The impact of a large city on its inhabitants (N. N. Sachuk and N. N. Lakiza-Sachuk) is dialectical in nature. On the one hand, such a city creates favorable conditions for various types of vital human activities and the prerequisites for fuller satisfaction of human physical and nonphysical needs. At the same time, the extreme crowding of the population, the intense rhythm of life, and the environmental pollution create a zone of heightened

risk in the city and have a detrimental effect on the organisms and health of urban inhabitants and on their mental state. The latter applies particularly to elderly people. In 1970 persons in the age bracket 50 years and older constituted 27 percent of the population of Moscow, 25 percent of Leningrad, Riga, Tallinn, and Vilnius, and 20 percent in Kiev and Tbilisi. At the present time these indicators are certainly much higher.

Large cities typically have a high proportion of working old-age pensioners and a higher level of material support for them. At the same time, comparatively better conditions for satisfying the various needs of city-dwellers, including elderly people, lead to accelerated growth in these needs and to an effort to reduce the gap between existing needs and the actual potential for satisfying them (Sachuk, p 9). In the large cities the percentage of single elderly people is higher: in Moscow in 1970 25 out of each 100 persons 60 years of age and older had no family, while in Tallinn it was 31, in Leningrad 37, and in Kiev 22 (Sachuk, p 9). Other big city costs are the higher level of road and transportation related injuries among elderly people and illnesses associated with noise and air pollution. Thorough, comprehensive studies involving participation by specialists from different areas are essential for successful social prevention of the possible complications and detrimental consequences of elderly people living in large cities.

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